

Land policy REVIEW

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UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE
BUREAU OF AGRICULTURAL ECONOMICS



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Editorial Note: ALL OF THE ARTICLES in this Spring Number look toward the future though all are rooted in experience. Their subjects are ripe for consideration and certain elements in the war and post-war situations make a discussion of them particularly timely.

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Social Security FOR Farmers

By ARTHUR J. ALTMAYER. *The Chairman of the Board explains how the insurance features of the social security program operate, the benefits farmers would derive from coverage under it, the problems their coverage would raise, and how these might be solved.*



FARMERS are generally familiar with insurance. They have proved to be good "prospects" for a wide variety of insurance protection against the natural hazards of agriculture. They have insured buildings, equipment, crops, and working-stock against loss by fire, hazards of weather and insects, theft, and accidental damage.

Thus far, however, farmers have generally not utilized the insurance principle to safeguard their most valuable single asset—their own earning power. Farmers are not adequately covered by life insurance and few carry health and accident insurance.

According to a nation-wide study of consumer incomes and expendi-

tures, only about 38 percent of white nonrelief farm families having net incomes below \$1,500 in 1935-36 carried any life insurance. The average yearly payment for such insurance was only \$64.42 per family with insurance. Even when all income classes were included, the percentage of white nonrelief farm families with insurance was only 43.3, and the average expenditure per family only \$87.69. Among white nonrelief families living in small cities and villages, the percentage of those with incomes below \$1,500 carrying life insurance was 61. The average annual premium paid was \$63.21 per family with insurance, or a little less than for insured farm families. When all income classes were taken together, more than 70 percent

of urban families were protected by life insurance, and the average family spent \$111.55 a year for life insurance premiums.

There are several possible reasons for the lack of private life, health, and accident insurance among farmers. A reasonably adequate amount of such insurance would absorb a relatively high proportion of the average farmer's cash income. The best time to purchase life insurance is during one's early working life. But this is precisely the time when the financial burdens of the young farm operator are particularly heavy and he is usually then seeking to accumulate the money to buy a farm, his equipment, livestock, to pay off his mortgage, and to put his farm generally on a stable financial footing. When this period of stringency is over, a farmer may be too old to get life insurance on advantageous terms.

Even when he is not pressed for money by the needs of his farm and his family, a farmer hesitates to buy private life insurance because his income is uncertain. A year or two of poor crops or unfavorable prices, or other emergency, may make it difficult, if not impossible, for him to pay the premiums on a policy of any considerable size. Fear that his policy may lapse thus deters him from securing any life insurance protection, or means that he takes out only inadequate protection against premature death or loss of earning power through old age or permanent disability.

One form of insurance protection against these risks is still unfamiliar to the great majority of farmers. Except in broad outlines, it is not well understood even by many agricultural leaders. This is insurance

Undaunted

Nothing will ever be attempted if all possible objections must first be overcome.

—SAMUEL JOHNSON

under the old-age and survivors insurance program provided by the Social Security Act.

Now

The program is operated by the Federal Government, and it now covers some 50-odd million industrial and commercial employees. It is paying monthly benefits to about a million persons, including nearly 500,000 aged retired workers, 117,000 wives of such workers, 250,000 children of retired or deceased workers, 130,000 widows, and 4,000 aged dependent parents of deceased workers. These benefits amount to about 16 million dollars per month.

Workers in jobs covered by the old-age and survivors insurance program pay contributions of 1 percent of their wages up to \$3,000 a year. Employers in the program make contributions of 1 percent of the wages they pay their workers. When a worker dies or reaches retirement age, he or his survivors may apply for the benefits provided by the law. Monthly benefits are computed on the basis of the worker's average monthly wages in covered employment and on the number of years during which he participated in it. No inquiry is made into the family's assets or

income. The "primary benefit" of the worker is computed by taking 40 percent of the first \$50 of his average monthly wages, plus 10 percent of the remainder, and increasing this amount by 1 percent for each year in which he earned \$200 or more in covered employment.

Benefits to survivors are figured at specified percentages of the worker's primary benefit (75 percent for a widow, 50 percent for a wife, child, or dependent parent) but the total benefit may not exceed \$85 per month or twice the worker's primary benefit, whichever is lower.

Who Covered

All persons are compulsorily covered by the old-age and survivors insurance program when they are employed at industrial or commercial jobs in the continental United States, Alaska, and Hawaii. Agricultural labor is among the several major types of employment still excluded and earnings from a farm or an independent trade, business, or profession, are not yet covered.

Farmers Excluded

Only recently have farmers become aware of this program as a possible source of security for themselves. They have had little occasion to become familiar with it, as relatively few had taken out "Social Security cards" or worked in employment it covers. For example, only about 32 percent of the farmers in Arkansas and 8 percent of those in Iowa had acquired "Social Security cards" by the spring of 1941, according to a sample study made by the Bureau of Old-Age and Survivors Insurance and the Farm Security Administra-

tion. Only 18 percent in Arkansas and 6 percent in Iowa had any earnings credited to their social security wage records by the end of 1940.

Since that time the situation has changed materially. Thousands of farmers have found temporary nearby employment. Other thousands have left their farms with fathers, sons, wives, or tenants, and have gone to cities to work in war plants. Farm laborers and farmers' sons and daughters have gone into industry at high wartime wages. Farm people have thus become acquainted with the old-age and survivors insurance program through actual participation. Many have paid sizable contributions and acquired rights under it, which will diminish or disappear if they return to peacetime work on the farm.

Post-War Security

Farmers are thinking seriously about post-war problems of agriculture. They fear a return to the low level of farm prices and the accompanying drop in farm land values similar to that which occurred after the last war, when farm prices fell 66 percent in a single year and when 400,000 farmers lost their land by foreclosure. They recall the long period of agricultural distress that began before the last great depression. They know that hundreds of thousands of farm boys now in the armed services will want farms of their own after the war. Some older farmers plan to retire and make a place for their sons. Others cannot so long as their future is insecure; this group particularly realizes that, if they could have been a participant in this insurance program since it began to operate in 1937, they might

be able to stop active work after the war.

Farmers of all ages need insurance against the possibility that their death or disablement will leave their families without adequate income. Their plans for meeting the other uncertainties of the post-war future would rest on a better foundation if the low-cost protection of the old-age and survivors insurance program were available to them.

Medical Care

Farmers face another hazard that could well be but is not yet covered by a national insurance program—the cost of family medical and hospital care. The experience of the Farm Security Administration with prepaid medical care has shown that this kind of insurance protection can considerably improve the medical and hospital services available to rural families. Farm people find it so difficult to pay for these services out of their own earnings that rural medical and hospital care is still, in most sections, far below the standards in urban areas, both in quality of service and in the amount of service available.

Permanent Disability

Insurance against the risk of permanent disablement before retirement age is not yet provided under the old-age and survivors insurance program. But it is an insurable risk to which farmers are peculiarly exposed. Studies by the National Safety Council reveal that farm work is one of the most hazardous of all occupations. But a farmer is not protected by workmen's compensation laws, and must himself pay for

Ultimate

Agriculture is the ultimate foundation upon which, in the order of things as they now exist, our entire economic, political, and social organization rests.

—OTIS DURANT DUNCAN

medical and hospital treatment when he is injured at work and the loss of earning power is added to this expense.

Hired Hands

Hired farm hands need insurance against the same hazards. In addition, they are faced with the risk of involuntary unemployment. In every State the industrial and commercial employee now enjoys protection under an unemployment insurance program operated by the State in cooperation with the Federal Government, but only in the District of Columbia is the farm worker eligible for unemployment benefits. All other jurisdictions specifically exclude "agricultural labor" from them.

These lacks tend to keep competent workers out of the agricultural labor market. Workers who have left the farm for wartime industrial jobs are likely to remain in such work after the war if they can, so as to keep the security rights they have built up. Were the same

sort of insurance protection extended to paid farm work, farmers would find it easier to compete with industry in hiring competent workers now and after the war.

Indirect Advantages

Farmers pay many kinds of State, county, and local taxes. In rural States, the greater part of the taxes are paid by farmers. Much of this revenue goes to pay for relief to aged, incapacitated, or dispossessed farmers and unemployed, aged, or disabled farm workers. If some of these needs were covered by social insurance, their cost would be distributed among the entire population in proportion to their earnings, and would not fall so heavily upon the members of rural communities.

Can Be Done

Employers who are subject to the program now file quarterly pay-roll reports showing the name, Social Security account number, and amount earned by each of their covered employees. The Social Security Board credits the wage record of each worker with the wages reported for him, and uses these records to determine the worker's insurance rights and the benefits payable to him or his survivors.

During the 8 years in which only industrial and commercial employees have been covered, experience has been gained and ways have been discovered for solving the administrative problems of bringing farmers into the program. Farmers are now generally accustomed to making reports to the Government, for income-taxes for instance. With very little change, the same reports could

be used as a basis for figuring the farmer's social security contribution. For farmers who do not file income-tax returns, a simple method of estimating income has been devised. This is called the value-of-services method. A value is set on the farmer's own services equal to what he would have to pay a hired worker to replace himself. A farmer might consider his own services to his farm to be at least equal in value to those of his highest paid hand. A farmer who hires no labor could value his services according to the current wage rates for good farm hands in his locality, using the monthly rates published by the Department of Agriculture as a guide.

Devices

For farm workers, the method of collecting wage reports and contributions would vary according to the numbers and types of workers hired. Large units hiring 10 or more persons probably keep accurate pay-roll records already, and they could use the quarterly pay-roll-reporting plan without difficulty, at least for their regular hands. Smaller farming enterprises might prefer to use a stamp plan which requires no bookkeeping. Special wage stamps would be bought by employing farmers, who would place them in stamp books carried by their workers whenever wages were paid. Half of the cost of the stamps would be deducted from the worker's cash wage, and the wages indicated by the stamps in his book would be credited to the worker's social security account along with his other wages or income from farming.

Thus, farmers could get full credit in their social security records for work on their own farms, paid work on other farms, and for seasonal work in industrial or commercial jobs. Their participation as workers, as employers of labor, and as independent working farmers would involve a very minimum of inconvenience to them.

Adaptations

Because the present program has been in operation for about 8 years, farmers and farm workers without previous coverage would suffer a serious handicap if they came in now and eligibility conditions and the method of figuring benefit rates remained unchanged. In general, the solution would be to disregard, in determining eligibility to benefits and computing benefits rates, the period before the coverage extension during which the worker was not in covered employment, but to give full credit for any covered employment and earnings he had before coverage was extended. In this way, there would not be any loss of insurance rights already acquired by farm people through wartime industrial work or through seasonal work in canning factories, logging enterprises, and other covered jobs.

Ways have been worked out also for determining insurance rights in terms of years of participation, as an alternative to the present quarterly method, which is not well adapted to the annual cycle of farming.

Similarly, alternative methods of making contribution payments have been developed for different kinds of farmers. Those who receive most of their income from the sale of a single crop could make their pay-

ments annually. Those who have a rather steady year-around income from the sale of poultry, eggs, dairy products, could pay on a quarterly basis, and if they wish could use special contribution stamps to spread the cost evenly over the quarter.

Costs and Benefits

Benefits under the program now cost employers and employees a total of 2 percent of wages. This rate was originally scheduled to rise stepwise to a maximum of 6 percent in 1949, but the first scheduled increase has been postponed four times by Congressional action. Protection for their workers against unemployment now costs employers a maximum of 3 percent of wages paid.

The Social Security Board believes that if a comprehensive program is adopted covering the entire population, the maximum rates of contribution to be paid by employers and employees should not exceed 6 percent each. If the cost at some future date rises above this figure, the Board believes it should be met through general taxation, since the cost of public assistance would be so much less. Such a comprehensive program would provide protection against old-age, premature death, permanent disability, temporary disability and the costs of adequate medical and hospital care. The Board believes that the cost of protection for farmers themselves against all of these hazards, except temporary disability and unemployment, would not exceed 7 percent of farmers' annual incomes. This cost would be largely offset by reduced expenditures for medical care and hospitalization and by reduced taxes for local relief of all kinds.

RURAL HEALTH PARITY:

Federal-State Cooperation

By F. D. MOTT, M. D. *How to get adequate medical services? How to pay the bill? Here a way toward promising solutions of these vexing rural problems is clearly outlined.*



MANY STATES have shown a vigorous interest in post-war planning of rural health services. The planning has been concerned chiefly with such problems as shortages of physicians and hospitals. It has given special emphasis to the needs of the indigent, although the definition of "medical indigency" is always obscure.

Realistic post-war planning of health services cannot be done by the States alone. This is eminently true of the predominantly rural States. The very nature of the problem is such as to require aid from outside State boundaries if it is ever to be solved, for an analysis of the various complex problems of rural health shows the difficulties to be fundamentally economic. So long as remedial measures are limited to those taken within the confines of the several States, the net results will be commensurate with the lower per capita income of the rural States or the higher income of the industrial States. To elevate the quality and volume of health services available to rural people to the high average of which our Nation is capable requires national planning.

There is, nevertheless, a great deal of planning for better rural health

services that the States not only can do, but must do, if there are to be Nation-wide achievements in improving rural health. As an underlying principle, State planning should be developed within the general framework of the National action we may reasonably anticipate.

Searching analysis of all the problems of rural health shows that the problem of paying the medical bill is basic to all. This is not to gainsay the importance of general social measures like housing, sanitation, nutrition, education, or community organization insofar as they affect health. Within the more special sphere of medical and related services, however, the problem of purchasing power effective to pay the cost of physicians' care—or dental care or hospitalization or drugs or eyeglasses—runs basic to the more spectacular and evident problems of the supply of active rural physicians and hospital beds, and all the rest.

Within this problem, we have happily graduated from the day when it was necessary to argue that prepayment by groups provides an easier and more efficient method of paying for health services than post-payment by individuals. All groups, public and professional, now concede (after about 30 years of pub-

lic debate in this country, and 60 years if we include Europe) that the unpredictability of sickness in individuals and its relatively certain predictability in given groups make it typically amenable to the application of the insurance principle.

Payment Issue

The payment issue today in this country has passed to another sphere. The question has now become: Should group prepayment be on a basis of local control and voluntary participation (a mechanism with which we have had abundant experience) or on a basis of National control with "compulsory" or universal participation? In general, the groups and interests that were once totally opposed to insurance of *any* type are now the staunchest proponents of the former policy, while those who were long the protagonists of insurance of *some* type to provide health services now favor the latter policy.

This explosive issue will be resolved by the American people. It need not, and probably cannot, be solved by the States alone or by their post-war planning committees. Suffice it to say here that the experience of 33 other Nations has shown that voluntary and local plans of health insurance inevitably lead to so-called compulsory and National plans, and that sooner or later it becomes clear that voluntary and local plans tend to provide inadequate services to those in lesser need and still fewer or no services to those in greatest need.

Nevertheless, the organization of local and voluntary plans—such as the local or Statewide plans set up or contemplated by hospital, medical,

or agricultural groups—serves a constructive purpose and should be encouraged. In the absence of a National program of social security including farm people and providing health services, they can do an immediate job. If such a program is legislated by the new Congress, which seems quite possible, such plans will be in a position to provide much of the machinery that is essential for administering any type of National program of health insurance.

Sponsorship

Whatever State or local plans are developed, they should be rooted in the widest possible sponsorship. If they are to be actuarially sound and financially solvent, it is essential that they include the broadest possible membership, with minimal income or occupational limitations. To the extent practicable, membership fees should be proportionate to income in observance of the medically traditional ability-to-pay principle. The costs of plan membership for the indigent might be borne out of general tax funds, in a way like that contemplated in recently proposed social security legislation. On such a basis, services could be offered with the fewest restrictions in quantity or quality, and the plan would fit most effectively into a framework of National planning and action.

Constructing Facilities

Development of plans for hospital and health center construction requires a similar broad conception of Federal-State cooperation. Here the need for Federal assistance is more generally recognized, though an oc-

casional rural State has developed ambitious plans on an autonomous basis. Most realistic hospital authorities, however, recognize that the tremendous capital investment required to establish good modern hospitals is beyond the financial ability of the rural communities and rural States that need such institutions most. The answer could be found in a grant-in-aid program on a variable matching basis, in which the States in greatest need would receive the highest proportion of Federal assistance. The same would apply to the construction of projects for environmental sanitation, so desperately needed in the rural areas—either on a community scale in small towns or on a family scale in the open country.

Hospital Planning

Before any hospitals or health centers are constructed it is essential that intelligent planning be done so that well-equipped institutions of appropriate type and capacity will be established in the proper places. This requires some type of master plan for every State, based on an accurate inventory of needs which takes fully into account the health picture in various parts of the State, natural trade areas, transportation facilities, and existing institutions. It seems likely that grant-in-aid legislation for construction of health facilities—as a phase of a post-war public works program to help maintain full employment—will stipulate such master plans as a condition to the issuance of grants to any State. Promoting the development of such plans is a first-rate task for all State post-war planning groups to tackle. Whatever the final method of financ-

ing, such plans will be indispensable.

In estimating needs for hospital beds, we are faced promptly with the problem of estimating the probable effective demand for hospital services. All health workers are familiar with the paradox of low hospital occupancy in areas of greatest medical need and fewest available beds. The paradox can be explained only by the fact that using hospitals depends upon having the money to pay rather than on need for hospital care. Without effective methods of paying for hospital or other health services through pre-payment or taxation or combinations of these, a magnificent program of hospital construction would result only in a vast network of handsome white elephants in our rural areas.

Health Centers

Forward-looking medical leaders have increasingly pointed to the hospital as the community center of all health services. The concept of the health center has developed, in which the administrative offices and the clinics of the department of public health would be housed, as well as the offices of physicians and dentists, complex diagnostic and therapeutic equipment, laboratory facilities, voluntary health agencies, and an appropriate number of hospital beds. In such a setting, community health work, preventive and therapeutic, would be given the dignity which it should command for the best public interest—as well as the opportunity for integration and the elimination of outmoded barriers between the role of government and the role of private medical enterprise.

A network of such rural health centers should be organized in functional relationship to larger, specialized urban institutions—in much the same way as the armed forces have achieved unparalleled medical efficiency through their system of field units, evacuation and station hospitals, and large general base hospitals. Plans for all this can and should be developed by the States.

War Surplus Equipment

The demobilization period presents us with unprecedented opportunities for obtaining in rural areas surplus military medical property, with which to equip and supply hospitals, health centers, and medical and dental offices. If such items are available at low or nominal cost, as may well be contemplated under the new Surplus Property Act, it may be an invaluable inducement for the community support of new institutions or for the relocation of physicians or dentists to serve areas of need. Preferential treatment under the act is to be extended to tax-supported and charitable community institutions and to veterans who wish to establish themselves in professional careers.

It is highly advisable that a representative body within each State engage now in over-all planning to the end that local communities may be in the best position to take full advantage of available surplus properties.

Public Health

In the field of preventive services on an organized community basis, much progress has been made. Departments of public health have in-

creased and have expanded their functions at an accelerated rate in the last 25 years. Yet much remains to be done if every rural county in the United States is to be served by a well-trained and adequate staff of public health workers.

It would be foolish for every municipality and every county, however small or however poor, to attempt to support a health department of its own. Instead, functional geographic units of local public health administration should be organized, encompassing one county or two counties, or up to five or six counties if that is necessary to acquire a population adequate to support an efficient unit. Obviously this is particularly desirable in sparsely settled rural areas.

The American Public Health Association has prepared such a plan for new determination of public health administrative units and the States can perform an invaluable service by mapping out functional local areas in general accordance with this plan. At the same time, mandatory State legislation is needed to insure some degree of local support for public health activities and to provide adequate appropriations by the State, to supplement the usual Federal contributions.

Key Role

As to functions, the traditional public health responsibilities for environmental sanitation, vital statistics, and the control of the acute communicable diseases have already expanded to include treatment of venereal diseases, medical management of maternity and infancy, improvement of nutrition, diagnosis of cancer, treatment of crippled chil-

dren, prevention of industrial diseases, and numerous other diagnostic and therapeutic medical functions. The treatment of tuberculosis and the management of mental disorders have long been regarded as governmental responsibilities. With increasing knowledge, the line between prevention and treatment becomes hazier and more meaningless. If all health services are to be coordinated and rendered with maximum economy and effectiveness at the county level, it is necessary that health departments step forward to play the key role in general health administration. Otherwise, agencies less vested with the public interest or less skilled in the technique of health work may handle the overall task by default.

Distributing Personnel

The health need of which rural communities and State planning groups appear more acutely conscious than any other relates to the shortages of medical and dental personnel. These shortages are a result rather than a cause of rural difficulties. They are mainly a result of the low purchasing power for medical and dental services and the poor hospital facilities which, in turn, have the same cause. The solution, therefore, may be expected to come through improving the methods of payment for medical and hospital services, as stated at the outset. But beyond this many positive steps can be taken to expedite the redistribution of available personnel to the rural areas from the urban centers and industrialized States to which they have been increasingly attracted in the last 30 years. It is vitally important, too, that positive action be

taken quickly in order that rural communities may get their share of the thousands of physicians and dentists now with the armed forces who will be going into civilian practice for the first time.

Thus, it is up to the States to eliminate the Chinese Wall licensure barriers that now keep practitioners from moving from one State to another to practice. Concrete inducements can be offered to attract physicians or dentists to needy areas, like modern office facilities or the costs of transportation, paid out of State and local funds combined. Fellowships might be offered by the medical schools, stipulating that the graduate settle in a rural community for a given number of years at the completion of his training. These and related measures can be taken by the States.

Beyond this there is unquestionably a need for an effective National "manpower" agency for medical and related personnel—an agency to do effectively in peacetime what the National Procurement and Assignment Service for Physicians, Dentists and Veterinarians has been responsible for in wartime. Even without the mandatory powers possessed now by the War Manpower Commission for industrial labor, a far more rational distribution of health personnel could be achieved simply by providing a free flow of information on the available "markets" for "selling" medical or related services in different communities throughout the Nation.

Quality of Service

Finally, much can be done by the States to help elevate the quality of rural medical services. Systematic

post-graduate courses offered by the medical schools and large teaching hospitals could help correct the medical ineptitudes into which isolated rural practice often drives a physician. Continued licensure for medical practice might be made subject to periodic re-examination or to post-graduate study at suitable intervals. Medical school education might be broadened to include training in the social sciences to give the young physician a better understanding of his role in the framework of modern society.

More important, the organization of group practice clinics in rural areas could help to bring to rural people the services of the medical and surgical specialists of which they hear much but seldom see. An ophthalmologist or radiologist or dermatologist could hardly survive financially or scientifically as a rural soloist, but in an organized professional group, serving a rural district of perhaps 30,000 or 50,000 persons, he could be adequately remunerated and kept scientifically "in trim," and could serve rural people with the techniques of modern science. The organization of a functional network of hospitals and health centers would serve the same purpose of elevating the scientific quality of rural services.

To Do the Job

This entire five-fold task of rationalizing the payment for health services, constructing facilities and obtaining necessary equipment, modernizing public health functions and administration, distributing health personnel according to need, and improving the scientific quality of

Equal

We in this country want nothing less than an equal health opportunity for every citizen.

—THOMAS PARRAN

rural medicine is a task big enough to leave manifold assignments for everyone. The rural areas cannot do the job alone; the cities cannot do it alone; the States cannot do it alone; and Washington cannot do it alone. Government as a whole cannot do it alone. Professional men and women must be at the front line to "deliver the goods." No Government bureau ever removed an inflamed appendix.

The teamwork of all is required. But teamwork means that all players in the game do their jobs in full realization of what the other players are doing and have to do, if the team is to win. It would be no more sensible to think that the States can accomplish the task by acting as autonomous units than that the Federal Government could do it alone if it acted on the theory that health services for 130,000,000 people can be administered exclusively from Washington.

There is evidence on all sides that rural people themselves want a parity of health services. The ghost of "socialized medicine" can no longer becloud the issue and obstruct progress toward this goal. It remains only for us to get together and do the job.

Negro Education AND GOOD LAND USE

By F. D. PATTERSON. *The relation between education and good land use is direct among Negroes as among white people. With developing influences and emphases in the rural South we may see a slow revolution in the prevention of land waste.*



A CASUAL VISITOR stopped at one of the Negro agricultural high schools located in a rich farming area of a Southern State a few years ago and during his brief visit heard classes in agricultural theory and saw groups of strong, healthy looking boys in their late teens and early twenties tending the school garden and the farm where varied crops were growing.

While watching, the visitor asked the principal if the boys, upon graduation, would return to their farm homes and apply their training to improving the practices carried on by their parents.

"Not a one," replied the principal.

"Why?" was the visitor's somewhat startled inquiry.

"Well, it's like this," informed the principal, "most of these boys come from sharecropper homes and have seen their parents toil year in and year out, with little or nothing to show for their work. So when they finish here, they'll be off to Chicago or some other city. They feel that there is no inducement for them to remain here and face the same discouragements their parents have been unable to overcome."

One aspect of the South's economic problem is revealed in this true experience. Here is a situation in which the States are spending their money for the education of Negro youth only to have them leave the South at the end of the training period and migrate to other sections of the country. This situation is true of both Negro and white youth and is a drain upon the South's limited resources for education. The South loses the money invested in their schooling as well as the intelligent service they could render to aid in the South's economic upbuilding. And it is fair to assume that under the South's biracial pattern, a higher proportion of trained Negro youth than others leave their homes to seek greater freedoms as well as an escape from the often inadequately compensated farm drudgery.

Although low income is the immediate cause of this movement of youth from our southern farms, the basic cause has been shown to be improper use of the land. Pioneer soil conservationists have for decades warned against continued impoverishment of the soil, but it was not until after the disastrous dust

storms following World War I and the development of other conditions that there came a national awareness of the relation between improper land use, rural poverty, and our country's economic structure. Fortunately, along with this national awareness has come a steadily growing appreciation of the place of education as a remedial agency in correcting land abuses.

New Emphasis

Measures undertaken and adopted by our Government to prevent a recurrence of this situation or at least to lessen its effects in a similar world crisis, gave educational leadership a long-awaited opportunity to emphasize those programs which hitherto had been sacrificed or adjusted to the demands of the plantation pattern and they provided new strength to agricultural agencies that were already at work among farmers.

The pioneering educational work of the Extension Service among farmers, as practical and effective as it has been through the years, could not offset some effects of the "system" nor overcome all of the hazards of boll weevils, market fluctuations, lack of protection under the tariffs, and other conditions involving foreign and domestic trade regulations. The same deterrents affected National and State programs of vocational education as they relate to agriculture and home economics.

Extensive research by Land Grant Colleges and Experiment Stations developed new and scientific methods of soil improvement, crop cultivation, animal husbandry, and set up varied demonstrations in land use. These procedures have been

greatly stimulated by the four Regional Research Laboratories established by the Department of Agriculture. Results of such studies have stimulated widespread interest in education for rural living.

Fresh Approaches

Many other agencies organized to undergird the Nation's agricultural structure have opened new approaches in the field of education by reason of their ready adaptability to instructional processes. Not to be overlooked is the financial assistance they provide.

Financial benefits available through AAA, FSA, PCA, FCA, and related agencies have naturally attracted the farmers but their actual participation in the programs has been an effective process in education. The services of SCS have provided a visual demonstration in soil treatment adapted to selected geographical areas and REA has indirectly induced better living standards in farm homes.

Amazing results of the effects of lime and other fertilizers upon the growth and weight of animals as revealed in studies by Dr. William A. Albrecht of the University of Missouri have heightened interest in soil treatment as related to the health of our people. Here is a new educational implement for advancing the whole program of nutritional adjustment, the need for which Selective Service enlistments so glaringly exposed as we entered World War II.

Not Again

"It shall not happen again." is the challenge for post-war health activities which our classrooms will em-

brace as a result of a new national consciousness.

In a very practical sense one important post-war health job is to get more nutritional information out of class rooms and into pantries and onto the tables of average homes.

A good beginning has been made through several million war emergency home gardens which were grown to offset temporary food shortages in regular channels. A further step will be to capitalize on the present radio and newspaper advertising for vitamins and convince our new vegetable converts that vitamins from that natural source are generally more potent than those obtained in trade-marked packages.

Another source of help will come from returning veterans who, with a little encouragement in their homes, will not drift back to those pre-war eating habits which were largely responsible for an estimated 40-percent rejection at induction centers.

Rarely has education been favored with such a combination of circumstances as has enabled it to lift a term like "nutrition" out of the realm of science and translate it into understandable "bread and butter language" among those who need it most.

Heavy Enlistment

In the over-all planning to reach the masses of our people, both white and Negro, the support of every available leadership group has been enlisted. A recent study of 222 rural churches in South Carolina by the Soil Conservation Service provides an interesting example as well as convincing educational material. The churches selected were situated

in areas where the land was (A) moderately eroded; (B) moderate to severely eroded, and (C) severely eroded. On the A lands the average of contributions for support of the pastor was \$432.37, as compared with \$241.09 on C lands. In Sunday School collections the comparisons were: A lands \$126.11 each and C lands \$50.50 each. For buildings and repairs each church in the A group raised an average of \$195.40 while those in the C group contributed \$60.62.

Centers

Rural Negro ministers, as a group, have caught the significance of better land uses as it affects their Sunday collections. They are joining heartily in the efforts of Negro agricultural workers to guide the farmers toward better farming methods. One of their organized groups, the Fraternal Council of Negro Churches, issues annual letters to rural pastors calling attention to community and cooperative activities which may encourage larger participation by farmers in the several farm programs.

Negro rural schools have become centers for assembling Negro agricultural workers and Negro farmers to discuss farm programs. In most of these schools local Negro teachers of vocational agriculture and home economics are on the faculties, and the school facilities are made available to workers in Negro Extension, FSA, AAA, and to other workers, for meetings with adults, with 4-H Clubs, and NFA boys. The educational correlations through this medium are encouraged by some 450 Negro Jeanes Teachers who exercise a broad and effective leadership

among Negro schools in 465 counties in the Southern States. These Jeanes Teachers (or Supervisors as they are sometimes called) are experienced teachers, carefully selected, who are paid jointly by the County Boards of Education and the Southern Education Foundation, and named for the Quaker philanthropist, Anna T. Jeanes. Their objectives include organizing and planning school programs that are definitely adapted to the community needs.

Negro Land Grant Colleges are now focal points for State-wide leadership which is planning to give the farmers a broad conception of the benefits offered in Government agricultural programs and of the methods for full participation. In several of the Southern States, Negro State Extension Agents, Negro Teacher-Trainers in Vocational Agriculture and Home Economics, Negro Health Workers, and FSA leaders have their headquarters at these colleges. Some have faculty status with the schools, thus enabling them to assist in planning curricula and otherwise using their influence to keep the colleges actively informed on agricultural trends. State-wide meetings, farmers' conferences, tours to visit farms and experiment stations and soil demonstrations, practice work in rural areas for students who are preparing for service in agriculture—these are some of the methods employed by the colleges to advance in a practical way the several phases of agricultural education.

Changing Attitudes

Still another aspect of indirect educational values in our present farm programs is the changing attitude of

many plantation owners towards their Negro tenants and sharecroppers. Conditions growing out of World War II have also helped in bringing about the changes. With emphasis upon soil conservation as a means of producing more food and feed crops, more gardens instead of cotton have been grown "up to the cabin doors." This has tended to reduce the plantation commissary with its traditional pattern of exploitation. Negro County Agricultural and Home Demonstration Agents report that from many plantations which they dared not visit in past years, they now have invitations from the landlords to hold meetings and conduct educational demonstrations for the Negro tenants and sharecroppers. And some of the very large plantations in Mississippi pay the salaries of full-time Negro teachers of vocational agriculture and home economics to serve the adults and children on their land.

Response

Real progress has been made in correlating proper land use with education but there is still much to be done. Many counties in the South with heavy Negro farm populations are still without Negro agricultural workers of any governmental agency and those areas are lagging in the forward steps so essential if we are to have a balanced agriculture here in the South. It is encouraging to report, however, that about 400 additional Negro Extension workers have been employed for the duration to carry on educational programs for increasing the production of food and feed.

The natural responsiveness of the rural Negro to any effort from the

outside to improve his condition has been a valuable asset in encouraging the progress that has been shown. His singing of the spiritual "Trouble Won't Last Always" typifies his unfailing faith and patience.

Cogent Influence

Thirty years ago when Booker T. Washington and Julius Rosenwald planned the rural schools building program, the procedure for qualifying for Rosenwald aid was for the County Boards of Education to appropriate half of the funds, Negroes to raise one-fourth, and Mr. Rosenwald to contribute the last fourth. The eagerness of Negroes in the rural areas to participate was attested by the time, energy, and sacrifices they put into the effort to raise their quotas. During the years while the 5,000 schools were being constructed there were no AAA payments, no FSA or PCA loans, and very little if any 20-cent cotton.

These Rosenwald schools are well-constructed buildings. But that is only part of the story. The spirit of community cooperation which helped to make them possible was of itself an educational value whose influence is felt today in the responsiveness of Negroes to the farm programs as well as to the many activities connected with the war.

Suggestive Figures

Of the 681,790 Negro farm operators, 672,214 live in the South and according to the 1940 census they occupy 30,785,095 acres of land. The same report says that of the 681,790 operators, 174,010 are owners who hold title to 8,215,026 acres

of land and have invested \$15,671,201 in implements and machinery.

It has been estimated that, in 1943, Negro farmers produced 2 billion pounds of milk, 100 million dozen eggs, harvested 300,000 acres of peanuts for war purposes, and that 47,000 Negroes planted their first gardens.

So far as Negroes are concerned, the rural future depends upon continued education in proper land use and farm programs which will induce more young men and women to remain on farms and to work toward continual improvement as they replace parents who are in their declining years or acquire holdings of their own.

The Alabama State Extension Leader for Negroes, J. R. Otis, has made a study of conditions in eight Black Belt counties of that State. In the foreword to his report Dr. Otis says: "The number of farm boys who remain on the farm is closely related to farms that have financial returns comparable with the pay they are able to get in other vocations."

As we approach the first post-war decade, the continued demand for food, along with possible Government subsidies, may keep markets and prices up to the present level of higher income for our farmers. Effective land use programs provide a sound basis for sound farming and a sound agriculture. They also aid in the practical matter of more profitable returns from farming and these may be an added inducement to more of our trained young people and farm-experienced returning soldiers to become "dirt" farmers and make the most of the land. The outlook is encouraging.

"Right Thinking" ABOUT THE LAND

By BENSON Y. LANDIS. *A sociologist and a churchman, whose work and predilections have brought him in continued and close association with rural conditions and problems, shares with our readers his reflections about the land and our relationship with it.*



IT IS WRITTEN in Proverbs that "as a man thinketh in his heart, so is he." So it is with man's relation to the land, one of the most fundamental of all relationships. The story of man's relation to the land in the United States in the past may in large part be summed up as one of indifference, waste, irresponsibility, and exploitation. Plainly, "wrong thinking" has too often prevailed.

St. Paul wrote in a noble passage that men may be transformed by the renewing of their minds. By the renewal of our minds we may also come to new viewpoints, new convictions, new actions, and thus to the renewal of the soil by which men live. Some of the significant thoughts of others about the land, which have pointed implications for practice, are here reviewed.

"The earth is the Lord's." This declaration from the Psalms is repeated in liturgies and in other literature. The Creator of the universe holds the final deed to the land. It follows that man at his best is only a temporary steward.

But it is not enough to repeat or recognize the grand phrase, "The

earth is the Lord's and the fullness thereof." Social thinking requires us to recognize that in a workaday world some of the land is the landlord's; some is the *lend*lord's; and a good portion belongs to governments, really to all the people within a civil jurisdiction. Even when an individual holds what in law is called a deed to land, he has to work with others. Land ownership involves a social process.

Many great thoughts about the land are contained in a small but mighty book, *The Holy Earth*, by Liberty Hyde Bailey. Interestingly enough, the essay was written not on the land but on the sea. An experience on the sea enabled a sage to record the reflections in the book. One of the most significant passages is the following:

"If God created the earth, so is the earth hallowed; and if it is hallowed, so must we deal with it devotedly and with care that we do not despoil it, and mindful of our relations to all beings that live on it. We are to consider it religiously; 'Put off thy shoes from off thy feet, for the place whereon thou standest is holy ground.'

"The sacredness to us of the earth

is intrinsic and inherent. It lies in our necessary relationship and in the duty imposed upon us to have dominion, and to exercise ourselves even against our own interests. (Italics mine.) We may not waste that which is not ours. To live in sincere relations with the company of created things, and with conscious regard for the support of all men now and yet to come must be of the essence of righteousness. . . ."

At Home

Thus man must exercise himself, even against his own interests, in order that the rights in the land of generations yet unborn may be protected. The devotion and sacrifices to this end and of one family on one farm are thus of untold value. There is no substitute for honest workmanship and the long view on the home farm. Only the husbandman can do what is required. The whole body politic can do no better than to encourage all that is implied by husbandry.

Afar

Protection of generations yet unborn requires also social controls and techniques. Some things cannot be done on the home farm. They must be done in legislatures and councils far away. They must be done in other nations as well as our own. They can be done only by wide associated effort.

Conservation of these values we hold in trust must be taught and encouraged through schools and organizations and governments. It is never too early to learn of one's responsibility to another. Often

"the twentieth man" will not voluntarily cooperate. Therefore sound laws must be enacted for only the will of the whole people, through compulsory cooperation, will enable him to contribute to the public welfare.

Wide diffusion of the ownership of private property among the people is a good policy. Tenancy as usually practiced is generally to be rejected, although we recognize the constructive place it can take in an enlightened citizenry. But private property rights are, and always should be, limited. The old Jewish law was essentially right—the harvest is for all children and not for a few.

Land arrangements that provide good homes for families are more important than commercialization. Probably much of our commercial civilization must be repudiated if the good life is to prevail on the land. The welfare of children is more important than private profit from land. All forms of the land ownership—public, corporate, co-operative, family—should be judged by the extent to which they promote the welfare of families among our people.

Together

We are under obligation to search for and find social arrangements for land use that encourage the highest and best within us. Among inventions of promise, cooperatives provide for an integration of self interest and social responsibility. They enable men to set up the "economic organization of liberty." They aim to promote both liberty and security. Wide cooperative organization should make for decency and permanency in land use.

Methods of securing revenues from land should be such as to promote both liberty and security. We have taxed land in the United States in such a way as to discourage both. We may find that the good life can be aided by applying some of the thoughts of Henry George, who wished to encourage enterprise by tax-free improvements and by enabling the community, rather than the individual, to benefit from any increments in value. We need to recognize to the full that land is a special kind of property, even though it may be bought and sold.

Nature's Cycles

Renewal of the land can in many instances be accomplished by simple adaptations to the cycles of nature. Here, again, commercialization is largely, or wholly, unnecessary. If exploitation has not already gone too far, the friends of the soil need only follow the simple and natural processes that were in operation before man began his extensive commercial ventures on this continent.

Ways of controlling and stabilizing the values of land must be found. The prices must not rise too high nor fall too low. Unrestrained competition might bring both, and might spell ruin. There are times when urban people should be prevented from driving up farm land values, through purchases which are designed to round out urban investment portfolios. Social control over men's rights to buy and sell land for easy profits is necessary for the general welfare.

The people who call out the bounty of the earth have a claim upon all society for a just share of the national income. The "doctrine of the just price" must be revived and taught and applied. Since farm people contribute not only food and fiber, but also good men and women, to other communities everywhere, to all other walks of life, and to government itself, it will be well if the leaders of the modern state take thought and do whatever is necessary to keep the rural springs of its life flowing well. A healthy agrarianism is a necessary ingredient of the good society.

Victors

When this war's food history is written, much credit for improved diets will justly go to the families in town and country for the hard work, good grace, and firm determination with which they turned to and produced more of their own food and conserved food values. . . . Thus they helped change what might have been a serious drop in the nutritive quality of family meals into an upward trend.

—HAZEL K. STIEBELING

LAND AND WATER POLICY for Central Valley

By MARION CLAWSON. *Here, involved in a far-sighted development project, is another striking instance in which best results will come when Government and the citizens work together.*



IN THE great Central Valley of California the Federal Government is constructing a vast multiple-purpose project, designed to improve navigation, provide protection from floods, irrigate lands now unirrigated or now lacking a dependable water supply, and generate large amounts of electric power. Conceived and initiated as a huge river-improvement project, it will have special significance in the post-war years. Opportunities for settlement on the land will be provided to veterans and war workers, and low-cost hydroelectric power can be the basis of enlarged industrial employment.

The Central Valley has been intensively studied for more than 20 years, first by State and later by Federal agencies. The Sacramento Valley, in the north, contains only one-third of the potential farm land, but two-thirds of the water supply originates there. The San Joaquin Valley, in the south, contains two-thirds of the potential farm land but has only one-third of the water supply.

The major plan of the project comes out of this basic unbalance of water and land. By a series of dams and canals, water originating within the Sacramento Valley will

be made available to the San Joaquin Valley. At the same time, destructive floods will be restrained, navigation will be made possible, and hydroelectric power will be generated by the water stored behind the dams.

California adopted a State Water Plan in 1931, and in 1933 created a State Water Project Authority which was authorized to construct the Central Valley project. Because of the difficulty of obtaining funds, the idea of a State project was given up and a Federal project was sought instead. Approved by President Roosevelt as an emergency project in 1935, it received Congressional approval in 1937. Friant Dam and the Contra Costa canal are now virtually complete; Shasta Dam, Keswick Dam, and the Madera Canal are nearing completion; the Delta-Cross Channel, Delta-Mendota Canal, and Friant-Kern Canal are not yet started.

When complete, these features will provide a dependable water supply to approximately 1,550,000 acres which now lack such a supply, and will bring water to about 550,000 additional acres not previously under irrigation.

All land irrigable under this project has been in private ownership for

many years; the land now irrigated but lacking a dependable water supply is in operating farms. Several difficult problems arise out of these facts. The Federal Government can make water available in any area, and can specify the terms on which it will be provided subject to State laws and established water rights. But the landowner is under no compulsion to take this water; he may refuse to do so, at least upon the terms under which it is offered. He may prefer to use his land for grazing, or for dry-land grain production, or may prefer to depend on a shrinking water supply rather than pay the costs of an enlarged and dependable supply from the Federal project.

Much of the land in this area was obtained in questionable ways, and the charge of fraud has often been raised. Nevertheless, these landowners have legally sanctioned titles, and will utilize the water supply only as far as their self-interest leads them to do so. Their self-interest may not coincide with the general public interest, but their property rights must be respected.

Originally

The historic American land policy is to favor relatively small farms operated by working farmers. Emphasis has been on the actual settler, and opposition has been expressed to the landed gentry and the absentee landlord. These broad policies found expression in the original Reclamation Act of 1902. Its sponsors stressed its home-building objective. They wanted to develop sound, stable communities. The acreage for which one landowner could obtain water was limited to

160 acres. The original act contemplated the irrigation of both private and public lands, and contemplated irrigation of previously unirrigated lands as well as provision of dependable water to irrigated lands lacking such a supply.

The act has been amended several times. The principle of family farms and limitation of acreage has been retained in every amendment, and strengthened in numerous respects, including provisions to prevent speculation in land.

Under present law, land must be sold at fair, appraised prices. Settlers are protected against land monopolists and speculators. The means taken to enforce the provisions have varied, but the objective has remained unchanged. On three projects, special legislation waived the acreage limitations when it seemed that results would not warrant the trouble of enforcement. On the other 70-odd projects the limitation has been retained. This has brought a pattern of diffused land ownership on the Federal reclamation projects, with far less concentration of ownership than in similar non-Federal irrigation projects.

New Puzzles

Application of these historic national policies to the Central Valley raises special problems. Much of the irrigation is carried on by pumping from deep wells. The underground water supply has been depleted by withdrawals exceeding the natural recharge of the underground supply. Each landowner, under California law, has a right to pump as much water as necessary to irrigate his land. No restrictions can be placed on his use of water, as

long as it is used upon his own land. The new project will be operated to replenish this underground supply, by putting water to the spreading grounds from which it can percolate to underground reservoirs. When this water gets underground, it moves slowly to the center and along the main axis of the valley. Water placed under one man's land may move under someone else's land, and become available to him. It is impossible to exercise complete physical control over this underground water, although its movement follows fairly well-defined channels. Under present California law, legal control cannot be exercised over withdrawal of this water, *once it has reached the underground supply*. Unless some means can be found to regulate its use, overdraft of the underground supply may continue and be intensified.

Costs

Another problem relates to the price at which water will be sold to private landowners. Federal reclamation is not on a profit basis; irrigation water is provided to the farmers at cost. These costs consist of (1) an operation and maintenance charge—"O+M"—which will continue indefinitely, and (2) a construction charge which is repaid over a period of years—usually 40. Only part of the total project cost can fairly be charged to irrigation. The cost of electrical installations is chargeable to electric power generation and the cost of river levees to flood control. But many costs are truly "joint"—equally necessary for all project purposes. Cost allocation is a difficult and tricky business, and decisions must often be arbitrary.

Yet the construction charge that water users must pay depends on this allocation.

Unique

This problem is not unique. It is found on every irrigation project where services other than supplying irrigation water are provided. What is unique is the relation of this problem to the underground supply. If water placed under one man's land becomes available to someone else, how is the second user going to be forced to pay his share of the costs? May he not refuse to pay any charges that may be levied, knowing that physical control of the underground water is impossible and that no legal restraint can be invoked against his use of water underlying his land?

Acreage limitation and the anti-speculation features of reclamation law sharpen these problems. If large landowners can obtain underground water without restraint and without payment, they will retain their extensive holdings intact or they will sell land at speculative prices. In either event, they will have gained great private profits from the expenditure of public funds. The public purpose of the project will have been lost, and the benefits siphoned off to enrich a relatively few persons.

Answers

How are these intricate problems to be solved? Is there any solution? The answer lies in the use of the contract, as a social instrument. On its side, the Federal Government offers to supply irrigation water on certain terms which include com-

pliance with acreage limitations and anti-speculation provisions of reclamation law; this water is valuable to those who need it. On their side, the landowners possess land without which the irrigation water is valueless. Each party to the contract possesses something that, in combination with the possession of the other, is much more valuable than when standing by itself.

This is an intriguing bargaining position. In some ways, the Federal Government occupies a superior position: there is more irrigable land than can be irrigated with any readily developed water supply. If a private monopolist controlled this water, he could wring many competitive advantages from his superior bargaining position. The Government, with its tradition of irrigation development at cost and with its responsiveness to public viewpoints, could not well follow such a course. But it can protect the public interest by proper use of this bargaining strength.

How about the landowner who hopes to get a "free ride" on the underground water moving under his land from some distant water-spreading grounds? He probably cannot be refused water once it has reached the supply under his land. The answer is, The water should not be placed in the underground reservoirs until all the beneficiaries have agreed to repayment, to acreage limitation, and to speculation control.

Water management must be on an area basis. Under the natural conditions which dominate the Central Valley, it is impossible to give single landowners the option of taking or refusing project water. If any water is made available to a particular area all landowners will benefit to a gen-

erally similar extent. Some of them cannot refuse to participate, because they will benefit by the rise in water table. On the other hand, water cannot be made available to only a few. All owners in each area must act to obtain or refuse water as a group.

When it is clear that benefits are obtainable only by compliance with the law, landowners will agree to these terms. As a condition to receiving water the owner may be required to restrict his use; by voluntary agreement, he agrees to what he cannot be compelled to do. Restriction to conform with available supply is clearly in the interest of water users, if it is equitably applied.

Negotiation

Thus, by negotiation and agreement among the parties concerned, both private and public interests are safeguarded. By voluntary agreement the Government and the landowners devise a program in which each benefits.

Agreements of this type require skill on the part of the administrative agency. This agency must be given large discretionary authority, because it is likely to meet problems which no legislative directive could fully anticipate. In the exercise of this discretion, the agency assumes a heavy responsibility to protect the public interest. In the negotiations with private groups it may be subjected to severe pressures, and plausible excuses are often found for actions that would turn out to have undesirable consequences. Keen perception, clear judgment, and steadfast purpose are required, to an unusual degree, of these public servants.

Rural Youth and DEMOCRATIC BUILDING

By E. L. KIRKPATRICK. Realizing that the longer post-war building must be done mainly by those who are now very young, we asked a man who has been working with rural youth leadership for several years whether rural young people are thinking and talking about the future in relation to the land and country living.



WHEN THE WAR is over hundreds of thousands of young people will be returning to our rural communities. There, they will meet hundreds of thousands of new young folks who have reached youth's estate in a period of unrest and uncertainty although they were only early teen-agers when their brothers and sisters left for war or the work of war. Each group of young people must adjust to the other and to the adults of the community.

Many will want to take up farming. Others will prefer trade, or service. Some will be satisfied with just jobs in the country. Many may want to continue their schooling. Wherever they are and whatever they do for a living, each should have a chance at the best his community has to offer, to be a full participant—a partner with others—in his local unit of our democratic society.

In what ways can his community help each boy and girl, each young man and young woman, to live and to work with others? What can he and the others do in cooperation with their elders? What sort of programs

will these young people want? How can they go about having a more satisfying life for all?

Young people talk and think and frequently do something about their own situations. What they do may depend on suggestions they get from others, including their elders, to which they usually respond with pretty straight thinking and then with intelligent action if they have the right kind of encouragement.

After this country was in the war several national agencies tried to find out what the young people were thinking and talking about and wanting to do, by communities. Meetings were held at Iowa State College, at Furman University in South Carolina, and at the New Jersey State College. These meetings were made possible through the American Country Life Association (Youth Section), the American Youth Commission (Rural Project), and the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace (Division of Intercourse and Education), in cooperation with the colleges where the conferences were held and the organizations that helped to send the

delegates. Each meeting was attended by 30 to 60 young people representing local groups in different communities.

Informally these young people reported briefly and discussed freely the things that were being asked about in their localities, and the things they could be doing to improve their situations.

Spotlight

The effect on immediate personal decisions of efforts in winning the war was basic to the discussions. But attention was paid to winning the peace, including things that might be done toward building the right kind of future. They turned the spotlight first on the home community and then outward, using the standpoint of "more democratic living to win the war and help reconstruct the world to keep the peace."

Jobs, marriage, schooling, and responsibilities to the community readily came to the fore. Far more questions were raised than were answered. A few are outlined here to indicate how our rural young people are thinking.

Work

"Many of us have never had jobs," the young people said, "and the uncertainties of war make it hard to plan for the future. Most of us live on farms—won't we want to look there for our first opportunity?" But the efficient methods developed to supply food for the armed forces and for other countries will not make for farm openings after the war, they realized. The family-size farm, the ideal to most of us, they said, may be hard pressed by

large-scale commercial operations. So, perhaps more emphasis must go to "love of the land" as a motive in lining up the right young people for farming and country living.

One young man now in the service writes: "I've been thinking about the philosophy of Plowman's Folly and would like to see the young people back home discuss man's relation to the land. I don't know just how to put it but the idea is 'as the land goes so goes the people.' Realistic economics in the long run affects both the land and the people. I never got much of it in school or college, for emphasis was mostly on the money side of farming.

"We sort of touched on the idea each year in our youth conferences but never attacked it full-scale. There is so much besides money to think of if one directs his thinking toward real goals in rural living. This is youth's challenge, as peace comes—to look at farming first from the angles of love of the land and social values in rural living; only then from the standpoint of the money there is in it."

Marriage

Marriage is perhaps the most serious and far-reaching choice one makes in life, the young people concluded. It changes a person's relation to himself, to his mate, to his parental family, and to his social and economic surroundings. Before making a choice don't young folks need to know as many persons as possible and as well as possible, in their communities? Isn't companionship in working for and enjoying the same things essential to happy married life? Is not real compan-

ionship most likely to come from working with others?

What marriage costs in dollars and cents is also to be considered, they believed. The average annual income in the United States is around \$1,500. A farmer, producing much of his own food, usually has less than \$1,000 a year. So a budget plan made out beforehand will help give balance among the things considered essential in family living.

Are not personality adjustments the key to the solution of most of the problems between husband and wife, they asked. Only harmony gives a working basis on which to build a satisfactory married life. For a harmonious life, what is the proper balance within and outside the home for a wife and mother? How closely are farming and a love for the land bound up with an intimate home life or a relatively large family? How can those of us who hurry into marriage because of the war start real homes when peace comes?

Schooling

What sort of education will be most useful to us and equally worth while in the future? Everyone can get vocational training now if they want it, for the Government helped to provide defense courses and is making such plans for the returning service men. But how many of us will be satisfied with the kind of work we will be prepared for after the war? Is vocational training our greatest need in finding our place in life? Or, should our schools be giving more attention to a liberal education for all regardless of financial standing?

"Our schools are still pretty textbookish. A lot of education is too far removed from what and where we live. Then there isn't enough of the creative arts in it, or recreational possibilities, hobbies, music. Don't the schools make it rather hard to keep the right people in agriculture, because text books and movies frequently present the farmer as a 'hick'? Don't the school texts usually show progress as something that is associated with cities?"

Community

"To make democracy really work every one of us must contribute right where we are. We must have cooperation in the home, the school, the whole community, if we expect to share in international trade and in common ideals of living. We can develop our abilities by being active members in local organizations. Communities are beginning to realize that we young people can make a contribution; by accepting places on committees, councils, and boards, we get good experience."

Shouldn't we ask ourselves such questions as: How much do we know about our Government? How can we have a greater part in it? What is expected of each citizen? If we are not satisfied with our democracy what can we do about it? What can young people do to make rural life more democratic and challenging?

The Way?

These questions rural young people are thinking about and asking, indicate readiness on their part to think and talk and plan and do, in their communities. What guidance,

suggestions, and encouragement can they have from adults who are concerned about the maximum contributions young folks can make to our democratic way of living? From those who realize that the far future is partly in their hands?

The ever-present perplexing questions for rural young people are: Is my place on the farm? What part should I take in the affairs of my community? These, too, are the principal ones to which the Rural Project of the American Youth Commission, cooperating with different agencies at National, State and local levels, gave attention for 5 years just preceding and during the first 2 years of the war. Georgia, Virginia, Ohio, Michigan, and Iowa were chosen as fields for demonstrating some things that might be done to help young people to help themselves. Recreation, discussion, informal education, vocational training, citizenship, home life, all received attention. Local programs, county meetings, district and State conferences, and informal training institutes stimulated interest, increased participation, and helped to prepare young people for leadership.

By States, from one to almost a score of communities cooperated. Some illustrations are suggestive. In Georgia the initiative was taken and the plans were evolved and carried out by students of the university and several colleges who gained experience and confidence in State conferences and leadership-training institutes. During summer months 15 of these students worked through extension agents, high-school teachers, F. S. A. directors, and church leaders with youth of different committees.

In Michigan, the State Employ-

ment Service, Vocational Education Department, National Youth Administration, Colleges of Education, and other agencies helped rural young people of five counties to define some of their needs and consider with their elders effective ways of meeting them.

Young folks in four Virginia counties were assisted with program plans and activity for a week by young leaders from Georgia. High-school students were met at assembly and recess periods in the daytime and the young people who were out of school were reached through evening meetings.

Pointers

The story of the efforts and accomplishments by communities is found in *Rural Youth in Action* by David Cushman Coyle, issued by the American Council on Education. Their experiences provide a few brief generalizations, here given as a basis for rural communities who are thinking of their young people.

(1) Find out how many young people are in the community; leaders sometimes say there are none, thinking in terms of their own organizations.

(2) Give them a place in community activities—separate programs if and as they want them—but always providing them a good chance to take responsibilities for things that need doing.

(3) Give them access to facilities—meeting places, school buildings, and the like; this may mean supervision or oversight but they will assume considerable responsibility.

(4) Give guidance, counsel, and encouragement; most of them welcome understanding adult sponsorship.

(5) Help them to train their own leaders—do it with them, not for them.

(6) Extend the outreach of present organizations and activities and organize new ones only if necessary.

(7) Help them to get started on farms if they want to, and if they are suited. One young man explained: "On our farm everything was O. K. I had my pigs and my calves. They drew prizes and took me to college. But Dad and I never talked about who would succeed him on the farm until one day he realized he was too old to go on. Then I was in another job that I couldn't well leave."

(8) Point out the significance of building and conserving the land resources. Give them the chance to plan and do what seems to them important on a given farm and in the home community. Help them to develop a love for country living.

(9) Start where young people are. If they want recreation only—"no more schooling now"—start with recreation; from group games move to talking over kinds of recreation that the community most needs which work into informal education and larger community programs.

(10) Invite the young people to help find out the community's needs and to suggest what they think can be done to meet them.

These experiences reported here with youth conferences and other activities are not the final answers. They are suggestive of what can be done with young people. They may encourage more work with programs that appeal to youth for these are they who will build a better rural life. Only by exploring and experimenting can we find the best means for developing the young people who love the land and who want to realize the value of democratic living in the community.

To Wehrwein

1883-1945

*Let him rejoin his prized earth.
Ardent, generous, intensely animate—
Whoever passed him, spare and slightly bent,
With scholar's gracious benison was sent . . .
Teacher, reformer, lover of the state,
Your passing inspires re-birth
Of gentler feelings, reverence and pride
In one whose purpose easier ways defied.
For effort valiant, courage put to test,
Receive life's last and tenderest requiem of rest.*

—EVA K. MARKS



Books

RAILROAD TRANSIT PRIVILEGES. By REGINALD V. HOBBAH. In the *Journal of Business of the University of Chicago*, v. 17, No. 3, July 1944, Part 2. University of Chicago Press. Chicago, Ill. 103 pages.

TRANSIT PRIVILEGE is defined by this author as meaning to stop a shipment at a point between origin and destination for some purpose incidental to manufacture or trade and reship it to its destination on the basis of the through rate. He refers to the most common method of assessing the rates, which is to charge the rate into the transit station, leaving the balance of the through rate to be collected later when reshipment from the transit station occurs.

It does credit to the author that he has succeeded so well in organizing the materials from which his conclusions were to be drawn. In contrast, the logical development of the conclusions seems questionable. The discussion conveys no impression of a deep insight into the general practice and theory of freight rate-making, without which it is difficult to appraise transit rates and practices in their relation to the whole scheme of traffic rates and practices. Therefore, it is not surprising that he singles out transit to condemn it in part—though not as a whole—for violating principles that are not inherent in the whole scheme of railroad freight rates.

For example in writing of iron and steel articles the author says, "One effect of the fabrication-in-transit privilege is its impact on the

policy of fabricators in their selection of vendors and on the functioning of the multiple basing point price system. . . . This situation tends to disrupt the price stability that generally is believed to prevail in the steel industry under the basing point system. The nearby vendor has little choice but to make some concession to meet the terms of the distant competitor. From the standpoint of price policy, the social value of these results is debatable, depending on one's point of view; but it is clear that the incentive to unnecessarily long hauls and cross-hauls of iron and steel articles implied in the situation can hardly be justified."

THE MAIN IDEA to be introduced by the review is that carriers incur more expense, largely owing to the terminal services at transit stations, in handling transit shipments than in handling through shipments the same distance over the same part of a given line. By charging the same for the unequally expensive services, carriers make it possible for places along the route to compete with the origin and destination places, or with places on the route known as "rate-break" points because through rates and combination rates via such points are equal, dispensing with the need for transit privileges there. The same princi-

ple of rate equality regardless of expense difference is involved where, also on account of competition, carriers via long and high-cost routes meet the rates of carriers via short and low-cost routes.

TO QUESTION the equalization of rates regardless of differences in expense involved in these traffic situations or in many others that illustrate the same principles is to question the economic and social value of competition. Substantially, limiting the question mainly to the fabrication of steel in transit is what the author does when he refers to the tendency of such transit "to disrupt the price stability that generally is believed to prevail in the steel industry under the basing-point system."

Unconvincing to this reviewer is the effort to distinguish between

freight commodities depending on transit privileges, basing the distinction on "considerations which are the outgrowth of vested interests which, in some instances, merge with the public interest and, in other instances, run counter to the public interest." Therefore, it is difficult to accept the author's assurance that the distinction he has in mind precludes any reasonable possibility of eliminating transit on such commodities as grain and grain products, cotton, and lumber, but not in the fabrication of steel. Is it not likely that the trend of rate regulation in recent years in the direction of cost differences as a basis for rate differences, if continued, will affect similarly all the rates under which transit privileges are allowed?

—G. L. Tillery

DEEP DELTA COUNTRY. By HARNETT T. KANE. Duell, Sloan, and Pearce. New York. 283 pages. (American Folkways, edited by Erskine Caldwell.) Bibliography.

HARNETT KANE, the self-appointed evangelist of the Evangeline country, has written another book as interesting and entertaining as his *Bayous of Louisiana* published a year or so ago and reviewed in this magazine. Whereas that was a glorified guide to the territory between New Orleans and the Gulf of Mexico where "the soil is strung along the river like tattered bits of cloth hanging from a double line," his latest is, essentially, a history book.

Drawing on a background rich in folklore, anecdotes, and colorful detail, on the hydraulics and physics of the Father of Waters, and on

files of historical quarterlies and engineering reports, the author records the way the dominant Mississippi River, the land, the crops—chiefly rice and sugarcane—great industries, great plantations, and little towns have come and gone through the years as land and water have changed. With the warmth and depth that the subject deserves, he manages to instill in his readers an appreciation of both past and present events, places, and people, in a setting unique in terrain and growing things which he terms "paradise incomplete."

"Tis said that the soil in the deep Delta is the richest that the world knows, for it is built bit by bit from silt, from weed fragments, and from mineral remains, all deposited there, especially in flood stage, by the "erratic, vacillating Mississippi River."

On the thin strips of land which have the appearance of floating, so encircled are they by water, nature is "frantic in its exuberance." Nowadays truck gardens pour forth an enormous yield, a crop every 3 months. Everything grows flamboyantly, insistently. There is an abundance of fish and game; there are thick oyster reefs and heavy concentrations of shrimp; deer, turtles, furred animals; alligators and great flocks of birds.

Yet, in the midst of plenty, life for most of the humans is now and has always been a struggle. Changes in land and water initiate a succession of adjustments. The region has served as a melting pot for many races and peoples, chiefly of French extraction.

"IN A REGION born of conflict, surrounded by uncertainties, the Deltans have fitted themselves to the rhythms of their background. They have battled the elements and sometimes other men for survival; their ways have tended to harden with their muscles. Here and there, in the farthest reaches, they take on something of the sadness of their lonely grasses and waters. Like the land on which they live,

they alternate violence with placidity. They enjoy long periods of rest in the shadows, followed by bursts of sharp excitement; and when they are stirred, they become a furiously positive people, with a gift for uproaring action. Since they are largely Latins, they possess also a capacity for release in gaiety"

It is perhaps in characterizing the Delta people—with their differences and their likenesses—that Kane best vitalizes this strange land for his readers.

"Fatalists, they reconcile themselves to what the seasons will bring, bowing their wills to the river, or the winds, or the changes in the water table. Life can be hard, yes; but a man cannot always count his sorrows. He will go to the store at the levee to 'pass a good time.' He will play cards with his friends and he will cry a bit into his strong orange wine. In the morning he will rise to the first honk of wild geese over the lakes, he will sniff the brisk air, and, damn it, he will tell his son, but this will be a fine day for a hunt! Le's go."

It is customary to think of the Delta in connection with troubles—disastrous floods, irregularities of many kinds, and flaring violences—and to wonder at a world in which cats learn to swim, cattle are taken to pasture by boat, and the ultimate in compliments is for one man to say to another, "He don' let the river slip anything pas' him!"

Those who don't get better acquainted with the Delta are missing something.

—Mildred Benton

"The trend of civilization itself is forever upward. . . ."

WINTER WHEAT IN THE GOLDEN BELT OF KANSAS. A STUDY IN ADAPTATION
TO SUBHUMID GEOGRAPHICAL ENVIRONMENT. By JAMES C. MALIN.
University of Kansas Press. Lawrence, Kans. 290 pages.

IT IS UNUSUAL to find a book on the subject of wheat written by a history professor. That alone is enough to make the least curious want to examine it. Once you've started reading, the unique plan the author follows in telling his story and the refreshing variety in the quotations from newspapers of the last half of the nineteenth century hold the interest from the beginning to the philosophical epilogue.

Professor Malin uses the "sample" method to picture the development of the wheat industry in Kansas. Riley, Geary, Dickinson, and Saline Counties, in the watershed of the Kansas River and its tributaries, represent the area in the historical study from the earliest printed records to 1900 when it was no longer a separate locality in the old sense. Wheat production is reported as early as 1839 when the Shawnee Methodist Mission grew 100 acres. The introduction of the hard red winter wheat from Russia in 1874 is credited to the Mennonites although others did most of the work of developing it.

It is brought out rather clearly that the early statistics on yields are considerably colored—the high acre yields reported drew eastern farmers to Kansas. No wonder our plant breeders have difficulty in getting their high-producing, disease-resistant varieties to equal the reported yields of those early plantings of unadapted wheat!

Of particular interest in this day of "Plowman's Folly" is a statement made before the Kansas State Board of Agriculture in 1893: "We should

have some instrument by which we can loosen the ground up deep, but not turn the stubble under." Illustrations show "mold-boardless" plows that were patented in the nineties. Such machines were in commercial production in 1898 in Kansas. The disk plow was used in the late nineties. Professor Malin's research offers a lesson to embryo authors who wish to startle the world with ideas that were tried and discarded many years ago.

This account of problems in the development of the great wheat industry is also a story of real human interest. The need for construction materials for homes and other buildings, lack of fuel and machinery, inadequate transportation, no markets, and no reserves of cash and supplies to carry through the lean years, brought heavy mortality. Only 43 percent of those who had been farming in Saline and Dickinson Counties 5 years before remained in 1870. Floods, droughts, blizzards, pests, dust storms caused the exodus.

In the epilogue, the author suggests the need for soil-conserving measures, and points out advantages that might accrue from using the "perennial wheat" of Russia. His philosophical comments relative to the individual, commercial organizations, and governmental bureaucracy are worthy of serious consideration. All in all, the book is an historical document of genuine human interest to those who like to know about the development of our country.

—C. R. Enlow

THE VALLEY AND ITS PEOPLE: A PORTRAIT OF TVA. Text by R. L. DUFFUS.
Illustrations by the Graphics Department of the Tennessee Valley
Authority, Charles Krutch, Chief. Alfred A. Knopf. New York

THIS IS a simple story of the Tennessee Valley and its people and of what they have accomplished since TVA.

Such books are welcome indeed. Considering its size, accomplishments, and significance to all people, surprisingly little has been written about TVA. Within the Valley people know it and understand it, because they are part of it. But people outside have learned most from newspaper accounts of spectacular court battles and debates in the Congress. The great multitude of sober jobs and quiet things, that add up to TVA is not well known.

Perhaps the reluctance of the Authority to publicize itself is part of the whole experiment: how far can a great public enterprise develop without continually tooting its own horn?

Duffus gives a good picture of the vast accomplishments—of the dams, and of their significance to industry and navigation, to farms and homes, to flood control and conservation, and to this war.

The agricultural side of TVA, with its profound significance to farmers everywhere as an example of what can be done, is brought out more clearly in this book than in most. Although less dramatic than huge dams and generators, the results can be of even greater significance.

The author explains how TVA works with other groups rather than duplicating the functions of private industry or of other public agencies.

"No other policy could have worked well in the Valley—and this is possibly a way of saying that no other policy will permanently work well in any part of America. The Valley people were, and are proud.

They had rather be poor than dependent. The essence of TVA, from their point of view, was that it opened up to them the road to independence."

The author might have explained more clearly the administrative mechanism of TVA, as new as the shining generators at Douglas Dam. Unless one understands how responsibility is *really* shared with local institutions and groups, he will not see what makes TVA tick. He might assume it was large funds or grants of power, and miss completely the vital force without which there would be nothing of lasting importance—

"This whole apparatus of dams, powerhouses, power lines, laboratories, experimental plants, factories, improved farm implements, terraced lands, young trees set out on eroded slopes—all this, while it remains and functions, is an implement with which either good or evil can be accomplished. . . . (A dictator) could build dams, harness the river's power, improve it for navigation, enrich the soil, create productive industries. The inland lakes would mirror hate and fear, but the generators would turn just as smoothly. . . . Or let us merely picture the Tennessee Valley as a setting for monopolized industry, with its farm lands, made rich by improved phosphates, held in large corporate tracts and tilled by landless men."

The book is attractively made. Both type and pictures—over 100 of these do much of the telling—are large and clear. The whole is printed in photogravure. Most adults will enjoy the book (although cynics won't understand it). Especially will it appeal to those high school boys and girls who dream of doing important things in an even better America, one still more productive, more just, and more democratic.

—Charles E. Kellogg

THE PRODUCTION CREDIT SYSTEM FOR FARMERS. By EARL L. BUTZ. The Brookings Institution. Washington, D. C. 104 pages.

THE PRODUCTION credit system, under the Farm Credit Administration, has been praised as a great improvement in rural credit facilities and criticized because of its use of subsidy in competition with commercial banks. Issues involved in the subsidy question are complex and there has been much confusion of facts and ideas. Dr. Butz, in an impartial and objective manner, has done much to clarify the issues and reach the heart of the problem.

A factual background outlining the growth and current position of the production credit associations is given in his book along with an exceptionally good picture and analysis of their operations—loan volume, earnings, loan fees, interest rates, and losses. The author points out faults such as the tendency of some associations to "live up" their income, including that derived from Government-owned capital. On the other hand, the good job done by the system in providing short-term credit tailored for qualified farmers at moderate costs in all areas is shown.

The need of Government capital for supplementing income as well as providing collateral necessary for obtaining loan funds from the intermediate credit banks is appraised and the growing investment of farmer borrowers in their associations is discussed. Reference is made to the growth of substantial reserves in many associations and to progress toward self-support. Dr. Butz says that, despite this situation, 115 million dollars in Government capital is still retained—mainly be-

cause no incentive has been provided for its repayment. The Federal subsidy, he believes, was justified to get the system started and the competitive effect is not so serious as sometimes alleged. "The real threat to commercial banking inherent in the subsidy is not so much the amount of the past or present subsidy, but the philosophy underlying continuous subsidy and the genuine danger that it may be extended to the point where both private and cooperative credit institutions will be forced out of the farm lending field"

Dr. Butz makes a definite proposal for eventually retiring most or all of the Government capital now in the hands of production credit associations. His suggestions include (1) placing the associations on a business-like basis by permitting them to vary their fees and interest rates between high- and low-cost areas, (2) returning all Government capital except that required for discount privileges with the intermediate credit banks, and (3) paying interest on all Government capital retained. Numerous questions as to the ultimate effect of these proposals remain unanswered, but they merit thoughtful consideration.

As shown by the author, the sound arguments on this controversial subject have not been all on one side. Both critics and supporters of the system at times have been justified in their contentions. Dr. Butz shows the need to consider the problem as it affects agriculture as a whole and the public at large.

—Lawrence A. Jones

I LIVED WITH LATIN AMERICANS. By JOHN L. STROHM. Interstate Printers and Publishers. Danville, Illinois. 377 pages.

LATIN AMERICA has 19 percent of the world's land, but only 6 percent of the people. A Honduras general is quoted in this book as saying "what we need is United States capital and technical advisers to help us build healthful, productive communities which will be of more value to the United States than our present ones." One small nation is said to have an annual national budget of \$2,500,000—only one-seventh as much as Rhode Island spends. These small nations, the author adds, do not have the money to build roads and promote education, health, and public-welfare programs.

A zest for travel and for talking with farm people on farms distinguishes Mr. Strohm's work—he is managing editor of *The Prairie Farmer*. Sympathetic reportorial writing is reinforced and vivified here by 176 photographs. He finds it necessary, after visiting shaded plazas, magnificent cathedrals, and cocktail bars in the capital cities, to go well beyond. Recently he talked with the peon as well as the president, gathered rubber in the Amazon, rode horses on the pampas, picked coffee in Colombia, and followed a llama train in the high Andes. He traveled 7,000 miles in Latin America by auto, train, oxcart, and donkey. His are vivid impressions.

The man in the field he found

illiterate, landless, and sometimes ruled by a dictator, but "he is in the majority and, therefore, the most important man in Latin America." Until he has schooling, democracy cannot succeed, the author believes, and until he learns scientific methods of farming the nation dependent on its soil cannot prosper.

Central American republics have tried a dozen times to do business as a federation, but each effort was wrecked, it is pointed out, on the rocks of jealousy. A chapter is devoted to each of the 20 Latin republics and each includes a brief summary of primary facts, descriptive and statistical.

On all sides, in all Latin American countries, the author heard that Latin American feeling toward us is better than it has ever been, and that the Good Neighbor policy has paid handsome dividends to a United States at war. These dividends are in terms of both raw materials that they have sent to us and in their friendly attitude during troubled times.

When traveling in five continents and 50 countries, the author was "constantly amazed at how courteous and good-natured people are all over the world." Citizens of his own country are exhorted "to remove the stigma from 'foreigner' and get along with our neighbors."

—DeWitt C. Wing

It is more dangerous to stop the mouth of the people than to dam the mouth of a river.

—Chinese proverb

Earth

We must carry with us an awareness of the perishability of this land, and learn to serve, rather than pilage, it. For nature has created her own rhythm, in which all forces are interconnected. And we have broken that rhythm. Our accelerated time sense wars with the time sense of the ages, and we have set a standard for production from the land that upsets the balance of nature. In our avarice we have removed forests and plowed up grasslands, confident that we were the masters. We did not know that the Nemesis of flood and soil erosion stood waiting. Over the South, gullies scar the land that once stood white with cotton. Out in Nebraska, the dust has blown from the earth, carrying all goodness with it. Upon the range-land, the sheep and cattle clip the pastures clean, and the grass per-

ishes. The people who work the land have been betrayed by their own misuse. They have been betrayed by the misuse of forebears, who in a new world, where land held no frontiers, felt no need to rebuild exhausted soil. These descendants of the pioneers walk their fields today with pinched faces and hopeless spirits. For the roots of their stability and plenty have withered beneath them. Their earth refuses to bear. Upon the same spot on this earth stands the cabin of their fathers; the same sky is above them; they are surrounded by the same wind and sun and rain. Everything remains except the one most vital element; the life-giving topsoil has been stripped from their land and lies, perhaps, out at sea beyond New Orleans, where it has been carried by the Father of Waters, in flood.

—CLARE LEIGHTON, in *Give Us This Day*,
Reynal & Hitchcock

THE INDEX to Volume VII of the Land Policy Review will be mailed upon request made to the Bureau of Agricultural Economics. Also available upon request are copies of the Indexes for Volumes III, IV, V, and VI.

We Americans of today, together with our Allies, are passing through a period of supreme test. It is a test of our courage—of our resolve—of our wisdom—of our essential decency. If we meet that test—successfully and honorably—we shall perform a service of historic importance which men and women and children will honor throughout all time.

—FRANKLIN D. ROOSEVELT
From his fourth inaugural address

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